



# Highly efficient disinfection based on multiple enzyme-like activities of Cu<sub>3</sub>P nanoparticles: A catalytic approach to impede antibiotic resistance

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## ABSTRACT

Cu<sub>3</sub>P nanoparticles (NPs) were proposed as an efficient antibacterial agent for impeding bacterial resistance. Both sensitive and resistant strains of *E. coli* and *S. aureus* ( $3 \times 10^6$  CFU mL<sup>-1</sup>), and the microbial populations from a fishery water were completely inactivated by Cu<sub>3</sub>P NPs ( $\leq 1.5$  µg mL<sup>-1</sup>) within 30 min with no regrowth. The antibacterial mechanism of Cu<sub>3</sub>P NPs relied on their own multiple enzyme-like activities, to elucidate, the action of ROS produced by their oxidase- and peroxidase- like activities was facilitated by their inherent activities for glutathione depletion and the lipid peroxidation. Comparing with that traditional antibiotics induced bacterial resistance (6 out of 7) within 3 passages, Cu<sub>3</sub>P NPs kept their initially inactivated efficiency, demonstrating that they can delay the onset of bacterial resistance. Furthermore, the Cu<sub>3</sub>P NPs shown no obviously toxic effect on aquatic organisms and a negligible side-effect toward mammalian tissues. This strategy is insightful for struggle with resistant bacteria.

## 1. Introduction

Bacterial resistance has been evolved with the continual applications of antibiotics. To conquer the limitations of traditional antibiotic, great efforts have been committed towards the evolution of alternative strategies [1–5]. Recently, various nano-antibacterial agents have emerged due to their particular antibacterial mechanisms, which are summarized as that: the physical contact, such as graphene-based materials [6,7]; the metal ions and ligands release, such as Ag ions [8]; the oxidative stress, such as the oxidase (OXD) and peroxidase (POD) mimics [9–12]; the photothermal/photodynamic effect, such as Ti- and Mo-based nano-materials [13–17]; and the synergistic effect with multiple above mechanisms [18,19]. Theoretically, these antibacterial mechanisms can largely escape from the resistance mechanisms of the traditional antibiotics that mostly interfere the syntheses of DNA and RNA as well as their encoded proteins.

Although a lot of nano-antibacterial agents have been reported, there still remains a big gap between laboratory investigations and practical applications [20]. For boosting the practical applications of nano-antibacterial agents, following issues should be explored clearly.

1) How can nano-antibacterial agents effect the produce and the spread of resistant bacteria, which has not been precisely and sufficiently investigated [21]. 2) Most of the previous nano-antibacterial agents require the auxiliary conditions that may damage the healthy tissues, such as the photo- or electro- or thermal or chemical (H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> for POD mimic) mediated antibacterial reactions [22]. 3) So far, expect some photocatalytic materials have been used for the inactivation of real water samples [23–25], most studies on the nano-antibacterial agents are still based on a few laboratorial bacteria, such as *Escherichia coli* (*E. coli*), *Staphylococcus aureus* (*S. aureus*), *Salmonella typhimurium* (*S. typhimurium*) and so forth, but rarely for the populations in the natural environments [26,27]. 4) The acidic conditions (pH 3–4) are required by the most developed OXD and POD mimics, which restrict their applications under the near-neutral pH conditions [28–30]. Therefore, more decent experimental designs are required to address the above issues [31].

Besides, a particularly important thing is that the current applications of nano-antibacterial agents are mainly focused on human-related aspects, but the largest consumption of antibacterial agents in cultivation and breeding industries has been neglected [32]. More recently,

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certain types of inorganic nanoparticles (NPs) have been developed for practical disinfection applications, mainly including metal and metal oxides ( $\text{nTiO}_2$ ,  $\text{ZnO}$ ,  $\text{nAg}$ ,  $\text{nCu}$ ,  $\text{CuO}_x$ , and so forth) [33,34]. Among them,  $\text{CuO}_x$  NPs show a potential application in the complex water samples based on their broad-spectrum antibacterial activity [35]. Herein, we found that the antibacterial efficiency of  $\text{CuO}_x$  NPs can be significantly enhanced by a phosphatization process to form  $\text{Cu}_3\text{P}$  NPs. The as-prepared  $\text{Cu}_3\text{P}$  NPs shown a super antibacterial activity towards the antibiotic resistant bacteria (ARB) and real fishery water sample. The antibacterial mechanism of  $\text{Cu}_3\text{P}$  NPs relied on their multiple enzyme-like activities. Furthermore, an ARB and antibiotic resistant gene (ARG)-inducing experiment was designed for investigating the bacterial resistance of  $\text{Cu}_3\text{P}$  NPs.

## 2. Experiment section

### 2.1. Materials and instrumentation

Glutathione (GSH), o-phenylenediamine (OPD), sodium hypophosphite ( $\text{NaH}_2\text{PO}_2$ ) and sopropyl alcohol (IPA) were purchased from Aladdin. Terephthalic acid (TA), 5,5'-dithiobis (2-nitrobenzoic acid) (DTNB) and 30%  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  were provided from Beijing Chemical Works. Catalase, superoxide dismutase (SOD), histidine, and 2',7'-dichlorofluorescein diacetate (DCFH-DA) were obtained from Sigma-Aldrich. LIVE/DEAD™ BacLight™ Bacterial Viability Kit (L13152) was purchased from Thermo Fisher.

The morphologies of  $\text{Cu}_3\text{P}$  NPs and bacteria were characterized by a field emission scanning electron microscopy (SEM, Hitachi, SU-8020) and a transmission electron microscope (TEM, FEI Tecnai G2 F20). X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns were obtained on a Bruker D8 Advance diffractometer using  $\text{Cu K}\alpha$  radiation. X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) measurements were performed on a PHI 5000 Versa Probe (ULVAC-PHI). Absorption spectra and fluorescence spectra were recorded by using a Cary 60 UV-vis spectrophotometer (Varian) and a Cary Eclipse fluorescence spectrophotometer (Agilent Technologies), respectively. The bacteria in LIVE/DEAD assay were imaged by confocal laser scanning microscopy (CLSM, Nikon, C2, Japan). The radical active species were investigated by electron spin resonance (ESR) spectra detected on Bruker EMX PLUS with the following parameters: center field 3502.00 G, sweep width 100.0 G and power 6.325 mW.

### 2.2. Preparation and characterizations of $\text{Cu}_3\text{P}$ NPs

$\text{CuO}$  NPs were prepared according to a previous method [36]. For preparing  $\text{Cu}_3\text{P}$  NPs, 20 mg  $\text{CuO}$  NPs and 300 mg  $\text{NaH}_2\text{PO}_2$  were placed at two separate positions in a porcelain boat with  $\text{NaH}_2\text{PO}_2$  at the upstream side of the furnace. The samples were heated to 300 °C for 2 h with a heating rate of 5 °C  $\text{min}^{-1}$  under  $\text{N}_2$  atmosphere. Finally, the prepared  $\text{Cu}_3\text{P}$  NPs were washed with deionized water and ethanol.

The OXD-like activity of  $\text{Cu}_3\text{P}$  NPs was measured by colorimetric assays based on the OPD substrate. The final concentrations of 10  $\mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$   $\text{Cu}_3\text{P}$  NPs, 1.5 mM OPD and 100 mM Tris-HCl buffer medium (pH 7.0) were mixed and incubated under 37 °C. As the substrate added, the absorbance at 450 nm was monitored. The POD-like activity of  $\text{Cu}_3\text{P}$  NPs was measured based on the above tests by adding  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ . The influence of pH values on the enzyme-like activity was measured in different buffer solutions. The oxidation ability of  $\text{Cu}_3\text{P}$  NPs to GSH was quantified using Ellman's assay. Typically, 225  $\mu\text{L}$  of  $\text{Cu}_3\text{P}$  NPs dispersion (40  $\mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$ ) was added into GSH (225  $\mu\text{L}$ , 0.8 mM) bicarbonate buffer solution (50 mM, pH 8.6). After incubation in dark condition, 785  $\mu\text{L}$  of Tris-HCl (50 mM, pH 8.5) and 15  $\mu\text{L}$  of DTNB (100 mM) were added into the mixtures. To remove  $\text{Cu}_3\text{P}$  NPs, the mixtures were filtered with a 0.22  $\mu\text{m}$  filter membrane. The absorbance of supernatant at 412 nm was monitored by a microplate spectrophotometer.

### 2.3. Antibacterial experiment and bacterial characterization

*E. coli* (ATCC25922 and DH5 $\alpha$ ), *Staphylococcus aureus* (*S. aureus* ATCC6538) and methicillin-resistant *S. aureus* (MRSA ATCC43300) were brought from Beijing Microbiological Culture Collection Center and cultured by Luria-Bertani (LB) medium and nutrient broth medium. The sensitive bacteria were only used as the control species. A single bacterial colony was cultured in 20 mL of medium under 37 °C for shaking 12 h. The as-cultured bacteria were then washed and diluted by PBS for final concentration of  $3 \times 10^6$  colony-forming units (CFU)  $\text{mL}^{-1}$  that were treated with a series dose of  $\text{Cu}_3\text{P}$  NPs under the laboratory conditions. After treatment with different times, the bacterial suspensions were diluted to  $10^3$  CFU  $\text{mL}^{-1}$  with PBS, and then spread on the nutrient agar plate and incubated under 37 °C for 24 h for CFU counting. The levels of lipid peroxidation (LPO) and glutathione of the bacteria were measured by using a Micro-malondialdehyde (MDA) Assay Reagent Kit and a GSH and GSSG Assay Kits, respectively.

After the antibacterial assays, the bacteria were collected by centrifugation and fixed with glutaraldehyde (2.5%) for 4 h at 4 °C under dark conditions, followed by sequential dehydrating with 30%, 50%, 70%, 80%, 90%, and 100% of ethanol for 10 min, respectively. After sputter-coating with gold, the bacterial morphology was characterized by SEM. TEM characterizations of bacterial ultrathin sections were operated according to our previous work [37]. For LIVE/DEAD assay, the tested bacteria were collected and stained with SYTO 9 and propidium iodide (PI) for 15 min in the dark and visualized by a confocal fluorescence microscopy. A regrowth test was carried out by seeding the treated bacteria back to the fresh medium.

### 2.4. Detection of reactive oxygen species (ROS)

(a) The generation of the  $\bullet\text{OH}$ ,  $\bullet\text{O}_2^-$  and  $^1\text{O}_2$  radicals was determined by ESR technique according to previous reports [38,39]. (b) For the in vitro antibacterial test, catalase (30 U  $\text{mL}^{-1}$ ), IPA (0.1 mM), and SOD (30 U  $\text{mL}^{-1}$ ) were used for trapping the  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ , hydroxyl radicals ( $\bullet\text{OH}$ ), and superoxide radical anion ( $\bullet\text{O}_2^-$ ), respectively. (c) For the detection of  $\bullet\text{OH}$  generated by  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  (by POD-like activities), TA was used as a fluorescent probe for the detection of  $\bullet\text{OH}$ . Briefly, the mixtures composed of  $\text{Cu}_3\text{P}$  NPs (10  $\mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$ ),  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  (40 mM) and terephthalic acid (TA, 5 mM) were incubated at 37 °C for 2 h, and the fluorescence intensity (Ex 312 nm/Em 425 nm) was recorded. (d) For the in vivo detection, the overall intracellular ROS level was investigated by using DCFH-DA fluorescent probe. After treatments, bacteria were stained with 10  $\mu\text{M}$  DCFH-DA for 30 min in the dark at room temperature and washed with PBS twice. The fluorescence intensity was measured by a fluorescent spectrophotometer.

### 2.5. Wound model and histological analysis

MASA-infected mice (6–8 weeks, 18–21 g) wound model was built to assess the in vivo antibacterial activity of  $\text{Cu}_3\text{P}$  NPs. After anesthesia, a wound ( $\sim 78 \text{ mm}^2$ ) was created on the mice back by surgical procedure and infected with MRSA (50  $\mu\text{L}$ ,  $10^7$  CFU  $\text{mL}^{-1}$ ). After 24 h infection, all tested mice were divided into three groups (with five per group): PBS,  $\text{Cu}_3\text{P}$  NPs (5  $\mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$ ) and  $\text{Cu}_3\text{P}$  NPs (5  $\mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$ ) +  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  (50  $\mu\text{M}$ ). The wounds were photographed at 24 h intervals. The mice were treated at fifth day and the wound tissues were collected. After incubation for 24 h at 37 °C, the amount of CFUs in the suspensions was determined. Animal studies were conducted under the guidelines of the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee. For histological analysis, the wounds of each group were harvested at day 5 and placed in 4% paraformaldehyde solution. Then the wounds were embedded in paraffin for Hematoxylin-Eosin (HE) staining.

## 2.6. ARGs analysis and ARB-inducing experiments

The real water sample from a local fishery was employed as a gene bank to investigate the bacterial resistance. ARGs analysis was carried out by high-throughput sequencing (HTS) technique. A detailed description of the total DNA extraction, polymerase chain reaction (PCR) amplification, sequencing, and data processing were mainly referenced the previous study [40,41]. The HTS was performed on a NovaSeq platform (Illumina, USA). The raw reads were demultiplexed and quality-filtered by using QIIME (v1.9.1) in accordance with the previous report [42]. Bowtie2 was used to compare Clean Reads of each sample with non-redundant gene sets. Samtools was used to count the number of reads on each gene being compared and calculate the gene abundance. ARGs were annotated by using the database <https://card.mcmaster.ca/download>. For the MGE analysis, the database for integrase genes from the INTEGRALL database (<http://integrall.bio.ua.pt/>), ISs sequences from the ISfinder database (<https://www-is.biotoul.fr/>), and plasmid sequences from the NCBI plasmid genome database (<ftp://ftp.ncbi.nih.gov/genomes/Plasmids/>) were adopted.

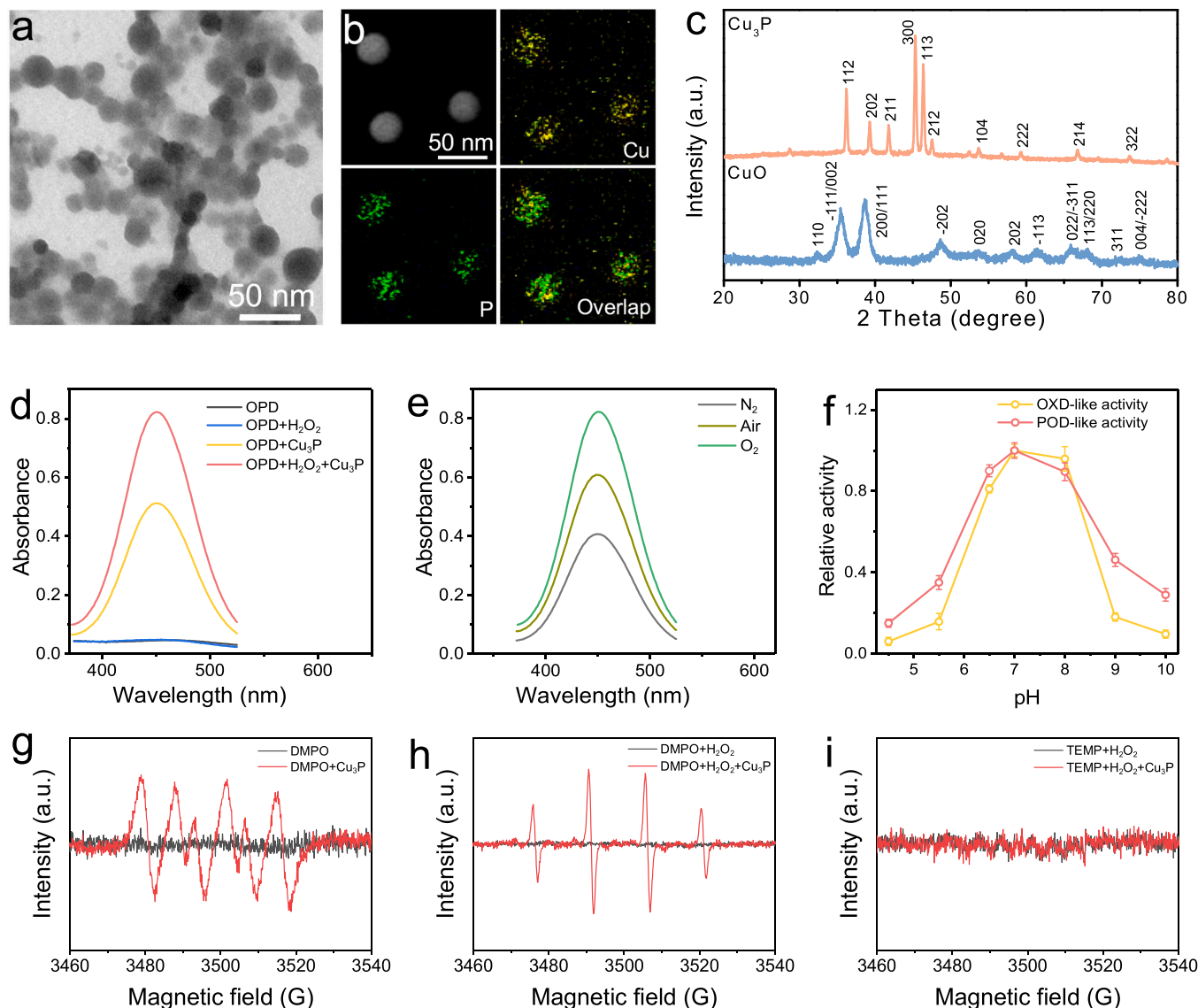
The equal values of real water sample were seeded on the nutrient

plates with a series of antibiotic concentrations. The minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) for each antibiotic was recorded at the last plate with the naked-eye readout colonies. The colonies on the plate with MIC antibiotics were further seeded for 3 passages by the same tested antibiotic. Then, the survived bacteria for each antibiotic were seeded on the nutrient plates with an over MIC of the antibiotics. The parallel experiment was carried out for Cu<sub>3</sub>P NPs.

## 2.7. Biosafety evaluation

The cytotoxicity of Cu<sub>3</sub>P NPs was studied via a standard Cell Counting Kit-8 (CCK-8) assay by using MCF-7 and HepG2 cells as the tested cells. The cells in DMEM medium with 10% fetal bovine serum (100  $\mu$ L, about 5000 cells/well, five wells for each concentration) were seeded in 96-well plate for 24 h. Then, the cells were incubated with a series of concentrations of Cu<sub>3</sub>P NPs. After 24 h incubation, CCK-8 solution was added into each well and incubated for another 1 h. Finally, the absorbance at 450 nm was measured by a microplate reader for evaluating the cell viability.

PBS or Cu<sub>3</sub>P NPs (5 mg kg<sup>-1</sup>, 100  $\mu$ L) were intravenously injected



**Fig. 1.** Characterizations and properties of Cu<sub>3</sub>P NPs. (a) TEM image. (b) Dark-field TEM image and corresponding elemental mapping. (c) XRD patterns. (d) OXD- and POD-like properties. (e) Effect of different saturated gases on the OXD-like activity. (f) pH-dependent OXD- and POD-like activities. ESR spectra of the DMPO+Cu<sub>3</sub>P NPs methanol suspension (g), DMPO + H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> + Cu<sub>3</sub>P NPs aqueous suspension (h), TEMP + H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> + Cu<sub>3</sub>P NPs aqueous suspension (i).

into the mice. At the fifth day after injection, the mice were sacrificed to collect blood samples for biochemistry assay. Meanwhile, the major organs (heart, liver, spleen, lung and kidney) of these mice were harvested and fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde solution for histological examination through H&E staining.

### 3. Results and discussion

#### 3.1. Characterization of Cu<sub>3</sub>P NPs

##### 3.1.1. Morphology and crystal structure

CuO NPs (Fig. S1) were prepared via a facile chemical precipitation route, which subsequently underwent a low-temperature phosphatization process to convert into Cu<sub>3</sub>P NPs (Fig. 1a). The Cu and P elements were homogeneously distributed in the sphere Cu<sub>3</sub>P NPs (Fig. 1b). In the XRD patterns (Fig. 1c), all characteristic diffraction peaks of CuO NPs and Cu<sub>3</sub>P NPs were indexed to those of the standard pattern JCPDS Nos. 80-1916 and 71-2261 [36,43]. XPS was further applied to analyze the chemical states of Cu and P elements in Cu<sub>3</sub>P NPs. In the high-resolution Cu 2p and P 2p spectra (Fig. S2), the peaks at 932.5 eV (Cu 2p<sub>3/2</sub>) and 128.9 eV (P 2p) were typical peaks of Cu<sub>3</sub>P NPs, and the peaks at 934.8 eV (Cu 2p<sub>3/2</sub>), 954.3 eV (Cu 2p<sub>1/2</sub>), and 133.8 eV (P 2p) were caused by the superficial oxidation of the Cu<sub>3</sub>P NPs in air [44,45]. These results indicated that Cu<sub>3</sub>P NPs were prepared successfully.

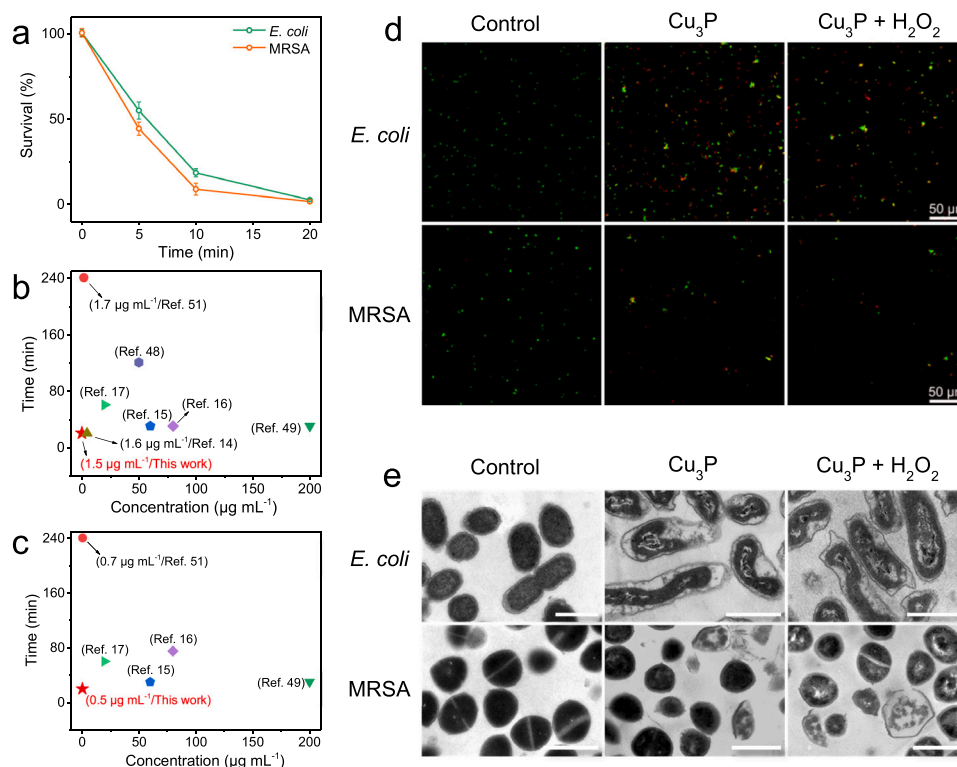
##### 3.1.2. Catalytic activities

The catalytic properties of the Cu<sub>3</sub>P NPs were investigated by using OPD as the chromogenic substrate. As shown in Fig. 1d and e, OPD was catalyzed by Cu<sub>3</sub>P NPs in the absence of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> and the catalytic activity was dependent on oxygen concentration, indicating the OXD-like activity of Cu<sub>3</sub>P NPs. The OXD-like activity of Cu<sub>3</sub>P NPs was pH-related and exhibited the highest value at pH 7.0 (Fig. 1f), which was different from the previously reported OXD mimics that required the acid conditions. Then, the OXD-like activity of the Cu<sub>3</sub>P NPs was further

studied by Michaelis-Menten constant ( $K_m$ ) and maximum initial velocity ( $V_{max}$ ). In Fig. S3, the low  $K_m$  value (0.95 mM) suggested the high affinity of Cu<sub>3</sub>P NPs for substrates. The  $V_{max}$  value  $0.94 \times 10^{-8} \text{ M s}^{-1}$  was higher than that of previous OXD mimics, meaning a high OXD-like property of the present materials [46,47]. When H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> was added into the Cu<sub>3</sub>P NPs/OPD reaction system, the absorbance at 450 nm was increased significantly (Fig. 1d), indicating a POD-like activity of Cu<sub>3</sub>P NPs. Interestingly, the Cu<sub>3</sub>P NPs exhibited high POD-like activity over a pH range of 6.5–8.0 (Fig. 1f), which was different from the pH range 3.0–4.0 required by the most previously reported POD mimics. Additionally, the  $\bullet\text{O}_2^-$  and the  $\bullet\text{OH}$  were detected by ESR technique (Fig. 1g, h), but no  $^1\text{O}_2$  was detected (Fig. 1i) [39]. The intrinsic properties of these enzyme-like activities could be used for ROS generation that was able to seriously impair the membrane integrity of bacteria, and thus leading to a predictable antibacterial capability of the present Cu<sub>3</sub>P NPs.

#### 3.2. Antibacterial activity of Cu<sub>3</sub>P NPs

Encouraged by the capability of Cu<sub>3</sub>P NPs for ROS generation, their antibacterial properties were then examined. The antibacterial performance of the present Cu<sub>3</sub>P NPs was really preferred by comparing with the other metal phosphides (Table S1 and Fig. S4). Five sizes of Cu<sub>3</sub>P NPs were prepared from different precursors of CuO and Cu(OH)<sub>2</sub> (Fig. S5) and their antibacterial activities shown no statistical difference (Fig. S6), indicating the good reproducibility of the Cu<sub>3</sub>P NPs antibacterial performance. The dose (Fig. S7) and time (Fig. 2a) for the system were further optimized. As shown in Fig. 2a, inactivation efficiency for both Gram-negative bacteria *E. coli* and Gram-positive bacteria MRSA was achieved to > 99.9% by Cu<sub>3</sub>P NPs within 20 min with 1.5 and 0.5  $\mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$ , respectively. The minimum valid concentrations were significantly lower than that of their precursor CuO NPs (Fig. S8). The inactive period by using Cu<sub>3</sub>P NPs was further shortened to 15 min by adding a low dosage H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> (100  $\mu\text{M}$  in Fig. S9). The traditional therapeutic concentrations of 0.5–3% H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> are still high to damage normal



**Fig. 2.** Antibacterial property of Cu<sub>3</sub>P NPs. (a) Time-dependent inactivation efficiency of *E. coli* ( $3 \times 10^6 \text{ CFU mL}^{-1}$ ) and MRSA ( $3 \times 10^6 \text{ CFU mL}^{-1}$ ) treated by Cu<sub>3</sub>P NPs with the concentrations of 1.5 and 0.5  $\mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$ , respectively. Antibacterial properties of Cu<sub>3</sub>P NPs and the previously reported nanomaterials toward (b) *E. coli* and (c) MRSA. (d) Fluorescence merge images in LIVE/DEAD assay. (e) TEM images of the bacterial ultrathin sections. Bars: 1  $\mu\text{m}$ .



tissues in the bacterial disinfection process and the low dosage of  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  in the present work is beneficial for minimizing the damage [48,49]. To our best knowledge, this is one of the most efficient antibacterial agents that does not need auxiliary conditions, even can compare with the light-mediated ones (Fig. 2b, c) and the commercial Ag NPs (Fig. S10).

To evaluate the injury of the bacterial cells, the bacterial morphologies were characterized by SEM and the permeability of cell membrane was assessed by LIVE/DEAD assay, where SYTO 9 was used to label the live microbes and propidium iodide (PI) for the dead ones. As shown in Fig. 2d, almost all bacterial cells were stained by PI in the  $\text{Cu}_3\text{P}$  NPs- and  $\text{Cu}_3\text{P}$  NPs/ $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ -treated groups in the LIVE/DEAD assay (raw images in Fig. S11). These bacterial cells became wrinkled and rough (Fig. S12), and their cell membranes and cell walls were seriously damaged (Fig. 2e). The regrowth test also demonstrated the complete inactivation of these bacteria by the present approach (Fig. S13). The present results indicated that these bacteria were sacrificed at the end stage of bacterial membrane permeabilization under the  $\text{Cu}_3\text{P}$  NPs actions.

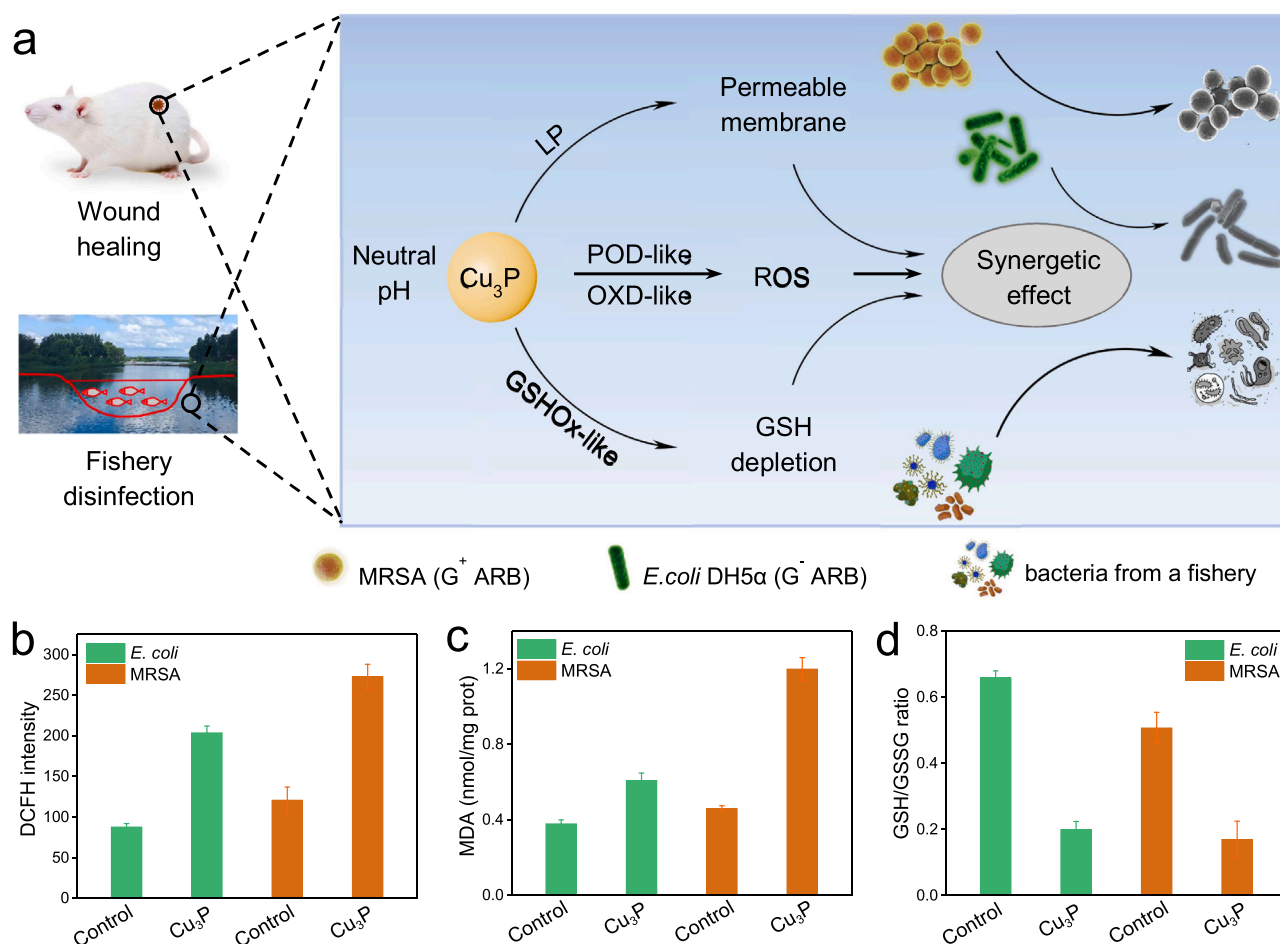
### 3.3. Disinfection mechanism of $\text{Cu}_3\text{P}$ NPs

In a previous report, the intracellular uptake of  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  released from Cu-containing materials is responsible for their antibacterial activity [50]. However, in this work, the  $\text{Cu}_3\text{P}$  NPs supernatant that was set for 1 week to release  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  showed no obvious antibacterial activities toward both *E. coli* and MRSA (Fig. S14). In order to further eliminate the possibility of  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  sterilization in the antibacterial experiments, the concentration of  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  released from  $\text{Cu}_3\text{P}$  NPs was quantitatively investigated by inductively coupled plasma optical emission

spectroscopy (ICP-OES). In the present  $\text{Cu}_3\text{P}$  NPs supernatant, 10.5 ppb of  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  was determined. A same concentration of  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  prepared by  $\text{CuCl}_2$  shown negligible antibacterial activities (Fig. S15). This result indicated that the antibacterial efficiency of  $\text{Cu}_3\text{P}$  NPs mostly do not rely on their released  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$ .

ROS are commonly used to explain the antibacterial mechanism for OXD- and POD-like nanomaterials [51,52]. Herein, catalase, IPA, SOD and histidine were used as the scavengers to trap the  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ ,  $\bullet\text{OH}$ ,  $\bullet\text{O}_2^-$ , and  $^1\text{O}_2$ , respectively. As shown in Fig. S16, the antibacterial capability was inhibited by adding SOD, indicating that  $\bullet\text{O}_2^-$  had mainly defined the antibacterial activity of  $\text{Cu}_3\text{P}$  NPs, it was accordant with the ESR results. Besides, since the antibacterial efficiency was enhanced by adding  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ , TA probe was employed to detect  $\bullet\text{OH}$  (Fig. S17) and the result indicated that the POD-like activity of  $\text{Cu}_3\text{P}$  NPs played antibacterial act by releasing  $\bullet\text{OH}$ . In addition, the DCFH-DA probe shown that the ROS levels in the bacterial cells treated by  $\text{Cu}_3\text{P}$  NPs were higher than that in the control cells (Fig. 3a, b), which were accordant to the antibacterial results. In the intracellular MDA test, the LPO was increased by  $\text{Cu}_3\text{P}$  NPs to 3.6 and 2.6 fold for *E. coli* and MRSA, respectively (Fig. 3c). Combined with the LIVE/DEAD assay (Fig. 2e), the LPO activity had promoted the permeability of bacterial membrane and facilitated the transmembrane transports of ROS, and the inactivation efficiency of  $\text{Cu}_3\text{P}$  NPs was therefore enhanced [53].

On the other hand, the antioxidants, mainly GSH (0.1–10 mM) in the bacterial cells, can directly neutralize ROS and diminish the antibacterial efficiency [54]. Herein, Ellman's assay was performed to quantify the GSH oxidation by  $\text{Cu}_3\text{P}$  NPs (Fig. S18). After 1.5 h incubation, 85.54% oxidation ratio was obtained and a near-depletion could be



**Fig. 3.** Antibacterial mechanism of  $\text{Cu}_3\text{P}$  NPs. (a) Schematic diagram illustrating  $\text{Cu}_3\text{P}$  NPs for MRSA-infected wound healing and fishery disinfection. (b) ROS levels, (c) LPO and (d) GSH/GSSG ratios in *E. coli* and MRSA for  $\text{Cu}_3\text{P}$  NPs treating experiments.

expected with the prolonging of incubation time. Beyond that, the ratios of intracellular GSH/GSSG were decreased from 0.65 for *E. coli* and 0.5 for MRSA to about 0.2 for both bacteria (Fig. 3d). The present results indicated that GSH depletion by Cu<sub>3</sub>P NPs alleviated the bacterial antioxidant capability and rendered the bacteria more vulnerable to ROS-dependent oxidative stress. To summarize the above results, the GSH depletion and the permeable bacterial membrane worked together to facilitate the ROS-based antibacterial actions. In a previous work, Cu<sub>3</sub>P nanowires were used as the electrode-modified materials to enhance the electroporation guarantees for a disinfection application [55]. In this work, we argue for that Cu<sub>3</sub>P NPs themselves are antibacterial agents based on the synergetic effects of their multiple enzyme-like activities.

### 3.4. Bacterial resistance of Cu<sub>3</sub>P NPs

The aquaculture industry is inevitable to use a mass of antibacterial agents for disinfection, which induces bacterial resistance and results in the rapid emergence and dissemination of ARB and ARG [56,57]. Herein, the bacterial resistance to antibacterial agents was investigated by using a local fishery water sample (Fig. 4a). To know the bacterial antibiotic resistance in the fishery, a large-scale field sampling and HTS analysis were carried and the top 19 ARG sub-types were mainly assigned to 7 classifications (Fig. 4b). In this work, these ARG types were investigated by employing erythromycin, bacitracin, streptomycin sulfate, penicillin, tetracycline HCl, and vancomycin as the representative antibiotics (excluding multidrug, Table S2). Rifampicin was used to assess the one that without resistant genes annotated from the raw sample.

For the fishery water sample (the genera annotated by HTS were listed in Supplementary Material Total genera), a completely disinfected

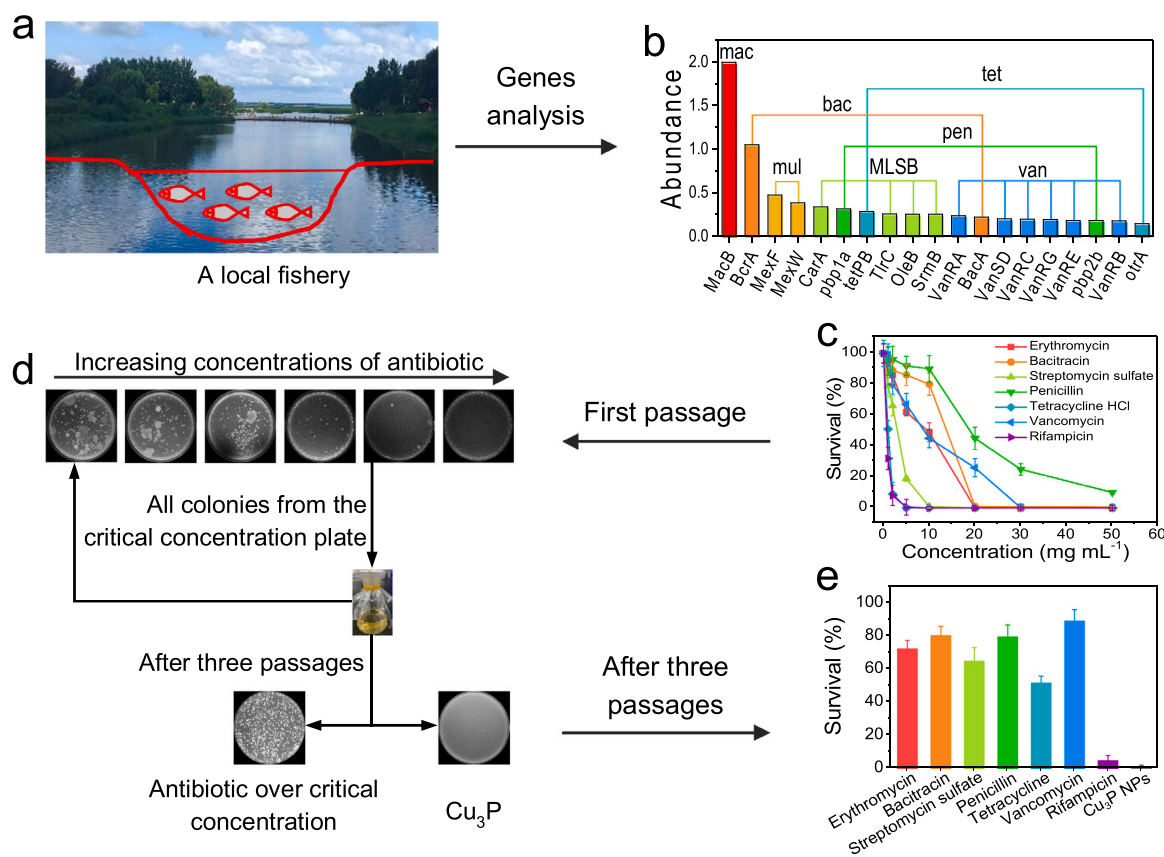
efficiency was achieved within 30 min with 0.8 µg mL<sup>-1</sup> Cu<sub>3</sub>P NPs (Figs. S19a and 20a). This dose was significantly lower than that of the commercial antibacterial agent, where over 30 µg mL<sup>-1</sup> Ag NPs were needed under the same conditions (Figs. S19b and 20b). For these tested antibiotics, as shown in Fig. 4c–e, the MIC was recorded as the dose of an antibiotic on the last plate with survival bacteria. After 3 passages of the inducing experiments, the survival ratios of the bacteria on the plates contained six test antibiotics were significantly enhanced. However, the Cu<sub>3</sub>P NPs and the rifampicin that without resistance genes had kept their antibacterial capacities (Fig. 4e). The present results indicated that Cu<sub>3</sub>P NPs could be an effective strategy to impede the problem of antibiotic abuse in the aquaculture industry.

The above results suggested that the antibiotic power for the present fishery has become weak. It will be dangerous with the vertical transfer of ARGs by giving an enough passages of antibiotics process (Table S3). Combining with the horizontal gene transfer induced by some mobile genetic elements (MGEs) annotated by HTS from this fishery, there is a higher risk for ARGs propagation among the local population. Cu<sub>3</sub>P NPs are able to elude the spread mechanism of ARGs and keep their antibacterial capability in certain passages. Therefore, Cu<sub>3</sub>P NPs present a promising way for the critical ecosystems in this fishery. However, it was noticed that the bacterial resistances induced by the other nano-antibacterial agents were reported [58]. The same risk presumably could also be induced by the present Cu<sub>3</sub>P NPs, if in a long-term and large-scale applications.

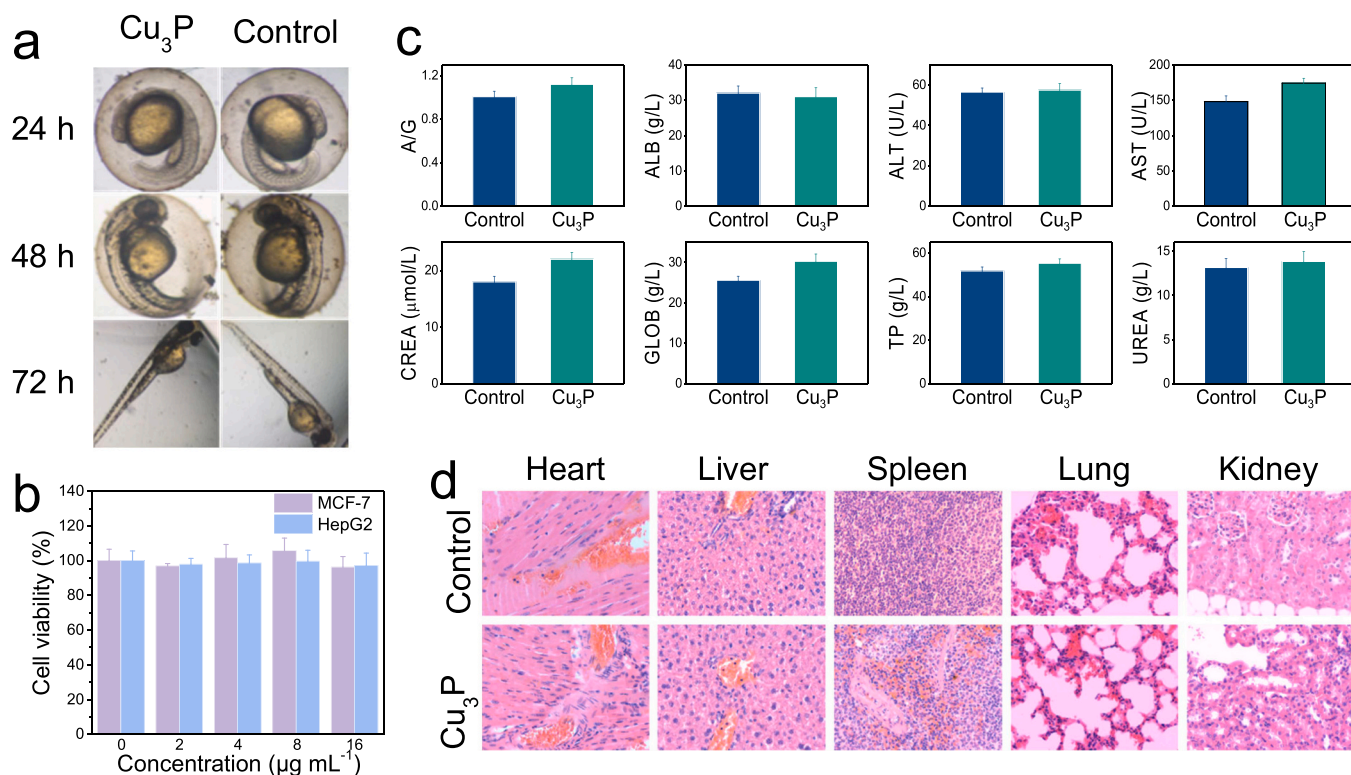
### 3.5. Biosafety of Cu<sub>3</sub>P NPs

#### 3.5.1. Aquatic biosafety

Based on the confirmation of the super antibacterial activity of Cu<sub>3</sub>P NPs, their biosafety was then evaluated. As shown in Fig. 5a, after the



**Fig. 4.** Bacterial resistance and ARB-inducing experiment. (a) Photographs of the fishery and (b) the top 19 subtypes of ARGs annotated from this fishery water sample. (c) Survival rate of the bacteria from the real water sample treated with typical antibiotics and Cu<sub>3</sub>P NPs in the first passage. (d) Schematic representation of the ARB-inducing experiment. (e) Survival rate of the bacteria after three passages.



**Fig. 5.** Biosafety of Cu<sub>3</sub>P NPs. (a) Toxic effects of Cu<sub>3</sub>P NPs on zebrafish embryos. (b) Cell viabilities of MCF-7 and HepG2 cells treated by Cu<sub>3</sub>P NPs. (c) Blood physiological index injected with Cu<sub>3</sub>P NPs. (d) Photomicrographs of the major organs stained with H&E after Cu<sub>3</sub>P NPs treatments.

incubation with Cu<sub>3</sub>P NPs for 72 h, the zebrafish embryos had no show changes. This result indicated that there was no significant toxicity of Cu<sub>3</sub>P NPs on zebrafish embryos at the test concentration and the materials were safe for aquatic life.

### 3.5.2. Mammalian biosafety

A standard Cell Counting Kit-8 (CCK-8) assay was carried out to evaluate the *in vitro* cytotoxicity of Cu<sub>3</sub>P NPs. 16 μg mL<sup>-1</sup> Cu<sub>3</sub>P NPs (Fig. 5b) that was over tenfold concentration used in the antibacterial experiments (1.5 and 0.5 μg mL<sup>-1</sup>) showed no significant toxicity toward MCF-7 and HepG2 cells. To investigate *in vivo* safety, Cu<sub>3</sub>P NPs were intravenously injected into healthy mice. There were no obvious changes showed by the blood indicators (Fig. 5c) and no obvious toxicity toward the main organs by the histology analysis (Fig. 5d).

Based on the results of biosafety tests, the application of Cu<sub>3</sub>P NPs was expanded to wound healing by using an MRSA-infected wound model. As shown in Fig. S21a, b, both Cu<sub>3</sub>P NPs and Cu<sub>3</sub>P NPs/H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> significantly promoted wound healing. The bacteria in the wound tissues were quantified and the CFU cultured from the Cu<sub>3</sub>P NPs treated groups were obviously less than those from the control (Fig. S21c). The wound-healing efficiency was further evaluated by histological analyses and incomplete epidermal layer and inflammatory cells in both treated wounds were obviously less than those in the control group (Fig. S21d). The biosafety of Cu<sub>3</sub>P NPs could also be reflected by the previous investigation on their application of tumor therapy [59]. These results demonstrated that Cu<sub>3</sub>P NPs presented supper antibacterial activity and could promote wound repair.

## 4. Conclusions

In summary, we proposed that Cu<sub>3</sub>P NPs were efficient nano-antibacterial agents and the antibacterial mechanism was explored as a synergetic effect by their multiple enzyme-like activities. It depended on the inactivation by ROS, which was further enhanced by the

destruction of the defense system caused by the GSH depletion and the permeable cell membrane induced by LPO. The disinfectant efficiency for a natural fishery water was achieved to 99.9% within 20 min without toxic effect on zebrafish embryos. For the fishery water, the delayed onset time of the bacterial resistance was demonstrated by comparing Cu<sub>3</sub>P NPs to the conditional antibiotics in an ARB-inducing experiment. Moreover, *in vivo* and *in vitro* biosafety data indicated the Cu<sub>3</sub>P NPs were hurdles in the present approach and a MRSA-infected wound healing was significantly accelerated. This work not only proposed an efficient antibacterial agent, but also provided a crucial proof for that the nano-antibacterial agents can reduce the bacterial resistance compared with the traditional antibiotics in a certain passages.

### CRediT authorship contribution statement

**Daiyong Chao:** Conceptualization, Data curation, Formal analysis, Writing – original draft. **Qing Dong:** Resources, Methodology. **Jinxing Chen:** Methodology. **Zhixuan Yu:** Investigation, Methodology. **Weiwei Wu:** Validation. **Youxing Fang:** Validation. **Ling Liu:** Conceptualization, Writing – review & editing, Project administration. **Shaojun Dong:** Supervision, Funding acquisition.

### Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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## Appendix A. Supplementary material

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found in the online version at [doi:10.1016/j.apcatb.2021.121017](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apcatb.2021.121017).

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